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GEOGRAPHICAL REVIEWS

A GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY OF THE PEACE TERMS

M. I. NEWBIGIN. **Aftermath: A Geographical Study of the Peace Terms.** 128 pp.; maps. W. & A. K. Johnston, Ltd., Edinburgh, 1920. \$1.50. 7½ x 5 inches.

In the April number of the *Review* note was taken of Demangeon's striking essay "Le declin de l'Europe" (Paris, 1920). It was pointed out that certain natural remedial measures had been at work in the interval between the writing of the book and the publication of the review and that these, in part at least, diminished the force of the author's conclusions. We now have in Miss Newbigin's book a brief essay of similar character dealing with the territorial side of the matter. She attempts to give "an outline picture of the Europe which emerges from the various peace treaties, without assuming that 'Conference' Europe is likely to remain permanent." While criticizing some of the treaty decisions, the author has a lively appreciation of the peculiar problems that confronted the treaty makers, many of which were due to the state of mind in which they found the world in 1919. By far the best part of the book is the first chapter of fourteen pages, dealing with geographical principles and such questions as the rise of nationality, the relation of people to the land, the contrast between economic and nationalistic groupings, and, particularly, the contrast between the industrial life of western Europe and the primarily agricultural life of eastern and southeastern Europe. This general discussion ends with a point of great importance—that the conflicting forces of the Old World are still at work and that they will in the long run determine the political destiny of Europe and of the world, so little changed fundamentally by the war and the various peace treaties.

The chapters from 2 to 9, inclusive, take up the regional problems of large natural or political units, like eastern France and Belgium, Poland, Austria, Rumania, etc., and conclude with a brief note on Germany's oversea possessions. In this, the main part of the book, there is a small amount of philosophical writing, most of the material being descriptive and statistical. There are thrown into orderly form the main facts of territory, population, and boundaries, already widely known through the published peace treaties. The space allotted to the various topics is too small to permit the placing of the main facts in a proper historical and geographical setting, though the book has numerous suggestions of high value, reflecting the wide reading of the author.

Some of the statements that relate to the negotiations themselves are hardly reliable. It was never seriously proposed by the treaty-making powers to re-create Poland by simply annulling the partitions of a century and a half ago and throwing Poland's eastern boundary out into mid-Russia (p. 27). Nor was it a political action "based upon abstract principles" that was responsible for the establishment of the Free City of Danzig. It seems all the more strange that such a statement should be written by a British citizen. When the unanimous recommendations of the Polish Commission for the inclusion of Danzig in the Polish state were rejected by the Supreme Council it was on account of British opposition to that course rather than the application of the "abstract principles" of President Wilson. Whatever motive impelled the British leader to oppose some of his own advisers and insist upon the creation of a Free City, it can hardly be less than obvious that the creation of such a city is of great advantage to British trade. And when the author goes on to say that it is doubtful if the solution (Danzig a Free City) can be *permanent* unless the new world is very different from the old one, the reviewer would feel inclined to remark that the solution has at least a chance of being as permanent as the British Empire (p. 30).

The spirit of some of the statements seems curiously alien to common knowledge of some fairly well-known facts. It is leaning over backward to say that "there are signs at least that mineral oil is likely to increase rapidly in importance" (p. 13); and that the Upper Silesia plebiscite solution, as "a late addition to the Treaty," is a working hypothesis that "seems to account for some of its [the Treaty's] anomalies" (p. 32). Surely these things are matters of common knowledge. That river boundaries were selected along the western frontier of Poland is taken as evidence that the boundary makes no pretense to be a strategic one (p. 34), whereas the precise reason for selecting rivers was a strategic one. Even small

brooks may have a high strategic importance in the early stages of a campaign when by the use of machine guns a few men can hold large areas. While such streams can be crossed at any time that it suits the higher military command to cross them, there is always an added price which has to be paid for overcoming this or any other obstruction.

Like almost all others who have treated the subject, the author emphasizes the apparently impossible economic state into which some nations were thrown by the rearrangement of the boundary lines. She finds that the treaty makers "clung desperately to the 'principle of nationality'" (p. 88); that the western Rumanian boundary "cuts streams, canals, railways, and even minor ethnical groupings more or less at random" (p. 78). One has to face the fact that *any* solution of the problems of territory and nationality in Europe would be violently attacked by powerful groups. It would hardly have comported with the spirit of the times to have denied the rising states of central Europe the nationality for which they fought. Their aid seemed important if not vital at one time or another during the war; and to have retained the old boundaries would have been to reward them by turning them over to their historic masters. Hardly anyone would have accepted a possible third solution—the creation of economic groupings to be maintained by force under conditions that would have given superior power if not superior authority to the former ruling caste.

PASTORAL INDUSTRY IN THE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF SPAIN

JULIUS KLEIN. The Mesta: A Study in Spanish Economic History, 1273-1836. xviii and 444 pp.; map, ills., bibliogr., glossary, index. (Harvard Economic Studies Vol. 21.) Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1920. 9 x 6 inches.

Among the several fundamental Hispanic institutions which have been the subject of study during the last two decades none is of more interest from the viewpoint of geography than the one which forms the theme of this volume. The Mesta was an organization of the sheep owners in Spain, the chief function of which was the protection of their migratory flocks. The entire basis of the institution, as of the sheep migrations from which it sprang, was geographic. Neither Spain's extensive sheep raising nor this influential organization of the large-scale migratory pastoral industry would have existed except for the peculiar physical environment of the Iberian Peninsula.

Spain early became a pastoral country. The great semiarid, almost treeless *meseta* that occupies over one-half of the peninsula contains large areas that are suitable only for grazing (see Eduardo Reyes Prosper: *Las estepas de España y su vegetación*, Madrid, 1915). So little agriculture was possible in these regions that stock raising developed, not as an adjunct to husbandry, as in most other European countries, but as a separate occupation. Here, for centuries, have been raised the famous cattle of the Guadarrama hills and the merino sheep whose wool long supplied the choicest grades for European markets. During much of Spain's history the produce of her flocks has been her one important contribution to foreign trade.

Seasonal migration of flocks arises from various conditions. Sometimes, as in central Chile, the low pasture lands dry up in a rainless summer, forcing the herdsmen to move their flocks to moister mountain ranges. Again, as in Argentina on the opposite slope of the Andes, the herds are driven to the mountains during the season when rains prevail upon the plains, chiefly in order that the herds may escape the heat of the summer and the insect pests that accompany it, or that their principal feeding grounds may be allowed to recuperate. In Mediterranean countries migration is practiced chiefly in search of winter ranges when the mountains are inhospitable.

In Spain there are two great pasture zones. The first is the hill country, consisting chiefly of the Cantabrian-Pyrenees mountain system, of the Gredos, the Guadarrama, and the Ibérica ranges, and of the Serranía de Cuenca. The second zone includes some of the river valleys within the plateau, such as those of the Ebro, the Duero, and the Tagus, with upper sections of the Guadiana; extensive lowlands south of the plateau; and several districts within the southern half of the plateau itself, chiefly the steppes of La Mancha and Murcia. The sheep belong upon the highlands, where during the summer months they graze upon the hills. This is the dry season, but sufficient grass is found for their subsistence. In winter, snow covers up even this scanty pasture, and the bleak winds imperil flocks and shepherds alike. They are then forced to migrate to other regions. Sometimes pasture can be found in neighboring valleys, but usually journeys of several hundred miles are required before